



A three-dimensional in-situ self-electrolysis system based on Ni₃(HITP)₂/graphene-based composite aerogel particle electrodes for efficient deep removal of phenol from coking wastewater

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ABSTRACT

Herein, a Ni₃(HITP)₂/graphene-based composite aerogel (Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA) particle electrode is developed for the oxidation removal of phenol with three-dimensional electrode technology. The as-constructed three-dimensional electrode system possesses high in-situ self-electrolysis capacity and achieves highly efficient degradation of phenol, completely removed within 15 min with a decomposition rate constant of 0.3283 min⁻¹. Ni₃(HITP)₂ in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA and the tetradentate Ni-N₂O₂ coordination bond generated at the composite interface produce H₂O₂ highly selectively via the 2e⁻ ORR pathway. The graphene layer converts H₂O₂ into •OH by using the 1e⁻ of Ni₃(HITP)₂ excitation and the microelectrode action of the particle electrode. Furthermore, the simultaneous generation of •OH and O₂^{•-} in the system greatly reduces the dependence on acidic environment and broadens the scope of utilization. The present work provides a new strategy for the efficient construction of particle electrodes in 3D electrode systems, which allows their potential application in the purification of coking wastewater.

1. Introduction

As the main pollution-like wastewater brought by coal coking process, coking wastewater contains a complex composition of organic pollutants, of which phenolic compounds account for 47%, with phenol accounting for 30% of the total phenols, the largest proportion.^[1,2] High concentrations of phenol are strongly corrosive and can cause poisoning, coma, and even death when they enter the body. When phenol wastewater enters the environment, even at very low concentrations, it can be a great threat to the environment and to organisms in water.^[3,4] Therefore, the development of a deep treatment process for phenol in coking wastewater is an urgent need for environmental protection.

For deep treatment of phenol, electrochemical oxidation has been widely used for its simplicity, high reaction rate, and low secondary pollution effects.^[5] In particular, there has been interest in emerging three-dimensional (3D) electrode technologies, which is a new electrochemical reaction system formed by filling or suspending some particulate materials between the two-dimensional (2D) electrodes in traditional two-dimensional electrochemical system.^[6] During

electrochemical reaction, these particle electrodes are easily polarized under the electrostatic induction of applied electric field, forming a large number of charged microelectrodes on which electrochemical redox reactions take place.^[7] 3D electrode technology has the merits of larger specific surface area, stronger mass transfer capacity, and higher current efficiency than conventional 2D electrode system,^[8,9] as a result, it consumes less energy and is more efficient in pollutant degradation.

The preparation of efficient and stable particle electrodes in three-dimensional electrode systems is the prerequisite. Particle electrode materials have undergone development from single phase to multiphase, and their corresponding performance in treating wastewater is becoming stronger.^[10] Currently, carbon-based composites have attracted a large amount of attention from researchers owing to their high porosity, large specific surface area, multidimensional charge transfer pathways, and excellent electrical conductivity. Shi et al.^[11] developed a nitrogen-doped mesoporous carbon particle electrode with good phenol removal over a wide pH range, which was modified with NiO/CeO₂/MnO₂ to improve the degradation performance in an acidic environment. Ghanbarlou et al.^[12] synthesized a nitrogen-doped iron/graphene-based particle catalyst by a one-step

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high-temperature annealing method with Prussian blue as the precursor, in which the introduction of iron triggered the Fenton reaction to produce hydroxyl radical($\bullet\text{OH}$) for enhanced degradation of Bisphenol A. However, the catalytic efficiency of this system is only about 30% higher than that of the two-dimensional electrode system. In this system, it is $\bullet\text{OH}$ that effectively but non-selectively oxidizes organic pollutants and thus achieves their degradation. At present, most of such systems use Fenton or Fenton-like reactions between the transition metal loaded on the particle electrode and the H_2O_2 generated from the reduction of dissolved oxygen at the cathode to enhance the performance degradation of organic pollutants.^[13,14] The particle electrode material itself has fewer catalytic active sites, resulting in poor electrocatalytic oxygen reduction performance and almost no H_2O_2 production. Their practical applications are limited by their high energy consumption and reliance on the main electrode.

Conductive metal-organic frameworks (c-MOF) have the advantages of high electrical conductivity and abundant catalytic active sites, as well as the large specific surface area and microporous structure of MOF, which endow them with great potential for application as electrocatalytic oxygen reduction materials.^[15,16] Elise M et al.^[17] used high conductivity $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ (HITP: Hexaiminotriphenylene) as an electrocatalytic oxygen reduction material, showing superior ability to produce H_2O_2 comparable to the most active non-platinum group metal electrocatalysts in terms of oxygen reduction activity and stability. In various catalytic reactions, electrons transfer from the active metal core to the carbon layer, then they excite the electrocatalytic activity on the carbon surface.^[18] Therefore, graphite-shell c-MOF hybrid carbon electrode is considered as a promising particle electrode material. The encapsulated c-MOF exerts its excellent oxygen reduction performance to in-situ generate a large amount of H_2O_2 in the material itself through the 2e^- path, and the electrocatalytic activity of the outer graphitic shell is activated to provide 1e^- to convert H_2O_2 into $\bullet\text{OH}$ in situ. Therefore, the three-dimensional electrode system combined with graphite-shell c-MOF hybridized carbon particle electrode is expected to construct a 3D in-situ self-electrolytic system(3D-ISES).

In the present work, a $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /graphene-based composite aerogel particle electrode with high electrical conductivity and high catalytic activity was developed by using graphene carbon aerogel as the substrate and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ with high electrocatalytic activity as the composite unit. Combined with the three-dimensional electrode technology, a three-dimensional in situ self-electrolysis system was constructed, in which the components in the system give full play to their respective roles and synergistically produce the optimal degradation effect. In this system, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ and the tetradeinate $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ coordination bonds at the composite interface catalyze the generation of H_2O_2 through a 2e^- pathway with high selectivity, and the graphene layer converts H_2O_2 into $\bullet\text{OH}$ by using $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ to stimulate 1e^- transfer and the micro-electrode effect of particle electrode, so as to achieve the effect of highly efficient and deep degradation of phenol in coking wastewater. The electrolytic system proposed in this study can significantly improve the degradation efficiency of the three-dimensional electrode system and reduce energy consumption. Meanwhile, the conformational relationship between the unique structure of the composite aerogel and the high $\bullet\text{OH}$ generation capacity was investigated. The intrinsic mechanism of the reaction species and efficient degradation activity involved in the system was elucidated.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /graphene-based composite aerogel

The graphene oxide dispersion (2 mg mL⁻¹, 3 mL) was mixed with different mass ratios of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ (0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9, separately), stirred and sonicated well. Then ammonia (100 μL) was added to it and sonicated well. The vial containing the mixed solution was placed in a reactor and reacted at 150 °C for 12 h, thus obtaining $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /

graphene-based composite hydrogel. The obtained hydrogel was washed and soaked in 15% ethanol aqueous solution for 48 h, and finally freeze-dried to obtain $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /graphene-based composite aerogel ($\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$). The same preparation process, without $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ being added, was adopted to prepare graphene aerogel (GA).

2.2. Three-dimensional electrode performance test for phenol degradation

The volume of the 3D electrode reactor was 180 mL, and the anode and cathode were stainless steel electrodes (80 mm × 45 mm × 1 mm) with 7 cm spacing between two electrode plates. The whole electrolytic tank was placed on a magnetic stirrer to mix the solution evenly and improve the mass transfer capacity by stirring. A sieve plate inside the tank separated the rotor from the particle electrodes to prevent the particle electrodes from being mechanically stirred up. Phenol solution (150 mL) was added to the reactor and sampling was performed at predetermined time intervals. Na_2SO_4 (0.05 M) was used as the electrolyte. $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ was soaked in phenol solution for 0.5 h before the experiment to reduce the adsorption effect. To keep experiment accurately, each set of experiments was repeated three times. In addition, oxygen was continuously flowed during the experiment to ensure enough dissolved oxygen. In this study, the phenol degradation process in most cases can be well described by a pseudo-first-order model with Eq. (1):

$$\ln(C_0/C_t) = kt \quad (1)$$

where t is reaction time (min), k (min⁻¹) degradation rate constant, and C_0 and C_t the concentrations of phenol at beginning and at time t , respectively. $\ln(C_0/C_t)$ is linearly related to t , and k is determined as the slope of the linear plot.

The concentration of phenol in the samples was determined by using a UV spectrophotometer (HACH, DR6000). H_2O_2 content was determined spectrophotometrically with iodine reagent. COD assay was performed by potassium dichromate method.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Preparation and characterization of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$

The schematic diagram of the overall preparation process of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /graphene composite aerogel ($\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$) is shown in Fig. 1. First, ammonia is added to aqueous graphene oxide solution. Then, positively charged $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ was introduced under stirring and sonication, followed by hydrothermal treatment at 150 °C for 12 h, during which $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ and graphene oxide were mixed and assembled continuously under electrostatic effect, while graphene oxide was assembled into hydrogel by reduction. Finally, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ /graphene composite aerogel ($\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$) was prepared by lyophilization. During the assembly process, various interactions occur between graphene oxide lamellae and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$: (1) electrostatic interactions between the negatively charged graphene oxide and the positively charged $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$; (2) the graphene oxide is rich in carboxyl groups, which are easily ionized to carboxylate. The carboxylic acid radicals ligated with the abundant Ni^{2+} in the $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ structure, thus forming a tetradeinate $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ coordination bond; (3) both graphene oxide and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ structures have abundant benzene ring structures, which form a strong $\pi-\pi$ stacking interaction. Under the action of multiple mutual forces, graphene oxide and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ support each other and assemble into a three-dimensional structure with a porous structure.

Table S1 shows the zeta potentials of GO, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$, 0.3 $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, 0.5 $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, 0.7 $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, and 0.9 $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$. The zeta potential of GO was -49.7 mV at pH=7, indicating that the system consists of uniformly dispersed and highly stable negatively charged particles [19]. Alternatively, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ aqueous solution possesses a zeta potential of +13.22 mV.

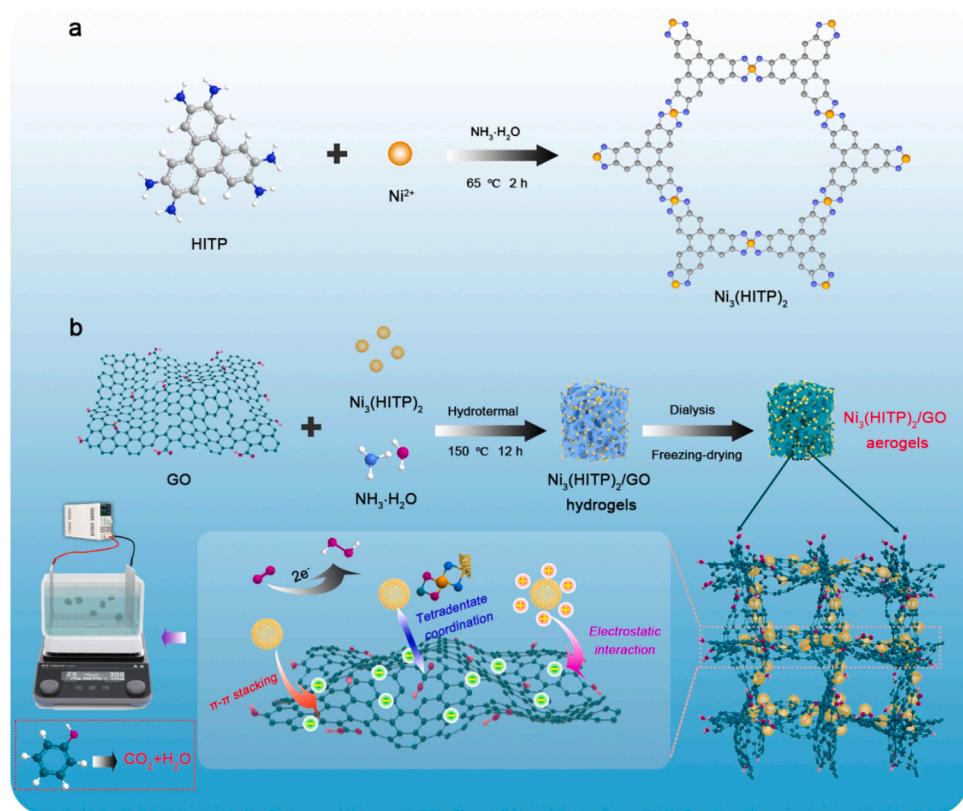


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the preparation process of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$.

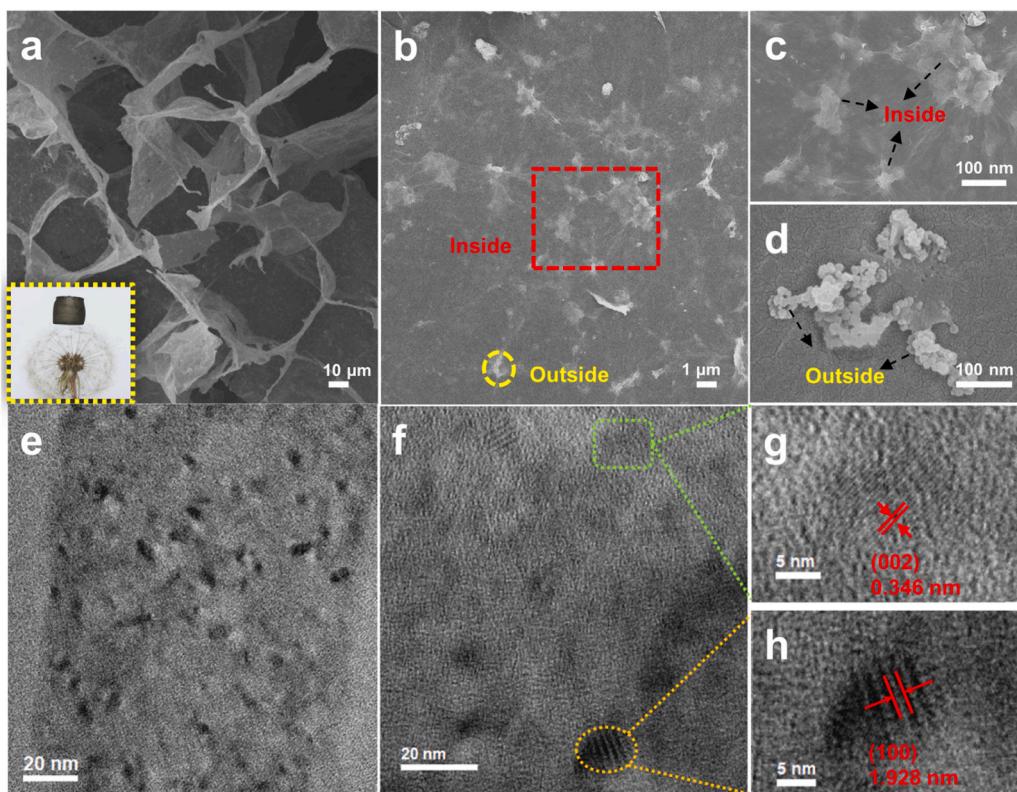


Fig. 2. (a-d) SEM images of 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA under different magnifications; (e-h) TEM image of 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA.

0.3Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, 0.5Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, and 0.9Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA display decreasing zeta potential values with increasing Ni₃(HITP)₂. The decrease of the absolute value of zeta potential indicates that the system becomes more and more unstable owing to the lack of electrostatic repulsion [20]. Therefore, the addition of excessive Ni₃(HITP)₂ leads to the agglomeration of the dispersions. As shown in Fig. S1(b) and (c) for the recovery states of 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA and 0.9Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA after compression with 100 g weights, respectively, 0.9Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is destroyed in the whole aerogel state after compression. In addition, Fig. S2(a–c) further illustrates that among the Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA samples synthesized with different doping ratios and reaction temperatures and times, and hydrothermally treated at 150 °C for 12 h, 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA exhibits the best 3D electrocatalytic degradation of phenol. FESEM was used to investigate the morphology of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA after Ni₃(HITP)₂ addition (Fig. S3). When the mass ratio of Ni₃(HITP)₂ to GO is 0.7, the structure of the obtained product is optimal, and Ni₃(HITP)₂ is uniformly distributed, while the pore structure is abundant. In conjunction with Fig. 2(a–d), these results suggest that 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA with rich network structures may increase mass transfer channels and shorten mass transfer distances [21]. Moreover, Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles in between graphene oxide lamellae improve the mechanical properties of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, as well as increasing active site exposure, which is beneficial to improving degradation efficiency [22]. At the same time, Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles are loaded on the graphene sheet layer or are encapsulated. Where the graphene sheet layer encapsulates Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles under the attractive effect of Ni₃(HITP)₂ on it, the sheet layer keeps approaching Ni₃(HITP)₂ and finally forms an encapsulated shape. The loading of Ni₃(HITP)₂ promotes oxygen adsorption and conversion to H₂O₂ [23,24]. On the other hand, the encapsulated Ni₃(HITP)₂ stimulates the electrocatalytic activity of the graphene shell layer, which provides electrons for the generation of •OH [18,25–27]. The HRTEM observation (Fig. 2(e–h)) shows that Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles are uniformly distributed across graphene sheets, and the further magnification of the Ni₃(HITP)₂ nanoparticles indicates that their lattice stripes have a spacing of 1.928 nm, which corresponds

to the crystal plane (100) of Ni₃(HITP)₂ [28]. The 0.346 nm stacking distance observed in 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA composite matches the graphite (002) crystal plane *d*-spacing [29]. In summary, the optimal sample 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA was obtained by hydrothermal treatment at 150 °C for 12 h. Thereafter, 0.7Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA samples are chosen for subsequent investigations and abbreviated as Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA.

To determine the composition of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was utilized. The diffractograms of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA are compared with those of GA and Ni₃(HITP)₂ powders (Fig. 3(a)). The diffraction peaks at $2\theta \approx 4.76^\circ$, 9.57° , and 26.53° correspond to the (100), (200), and (001) crystal planes of Ni₃(HITP)₂, respectively [27]. The typical peak at $2\theta \approx 24.69^\circ$ corresponds to the (002) crystal plane formed by the π - π stacking between graphene lamellae in GA [30]. It is worth noting that the graphite characteristic peak in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA ($2\theta \approx 24.69^\circ$) shows a clear sign of leftward shift with respect to GA ($2\theta \approx 24.96^\circ$), which may be due to the reduction of crystal plane spacing and change of crystal structure caused by the introduction of Ni₃(HITP)₂ and special interfacial functional groups. And the occurrence of this change also promotes the construction of the three-dimensional structure [31]. In addition, the diffraction peak becomes relatively flat, indicating that the obtained Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is mainly based on turboskeletal carbon [32].

As can be seen from the FTIR spectra (Fig. S4), Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is rich in active functional groups, with 3437 cm^{-1} for –OH, 1737 cm^{-1} for C=O, and 1205 cm^{-1} for C–N with enhanced stretching vibrational bonds. It is reported that the rich oxygen-containing functional groups in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA are beneficial to improving the selectivity towards O₂ in the electrocatalytic reduction process [18]. The Raman spectra of all samples (Fig. 3(b)) show two significant D and G bands at 1348 cm^{-1} and 1580 cm^{-1} , which indicate the defects in the graphite lattice and the in-plane stretching vibrations of ordered carbon sp₂ hybridization, respectively. Therefore, the I_D/I_G ratio can reflect the degree of graphitization as well as the degree of defects in the material. As shown in Fig. 3(b), the I_D/I_G of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is increased to a certain extent compared with GA. The insertion of Ni₃(HITP)₂ nanoparticles into GO

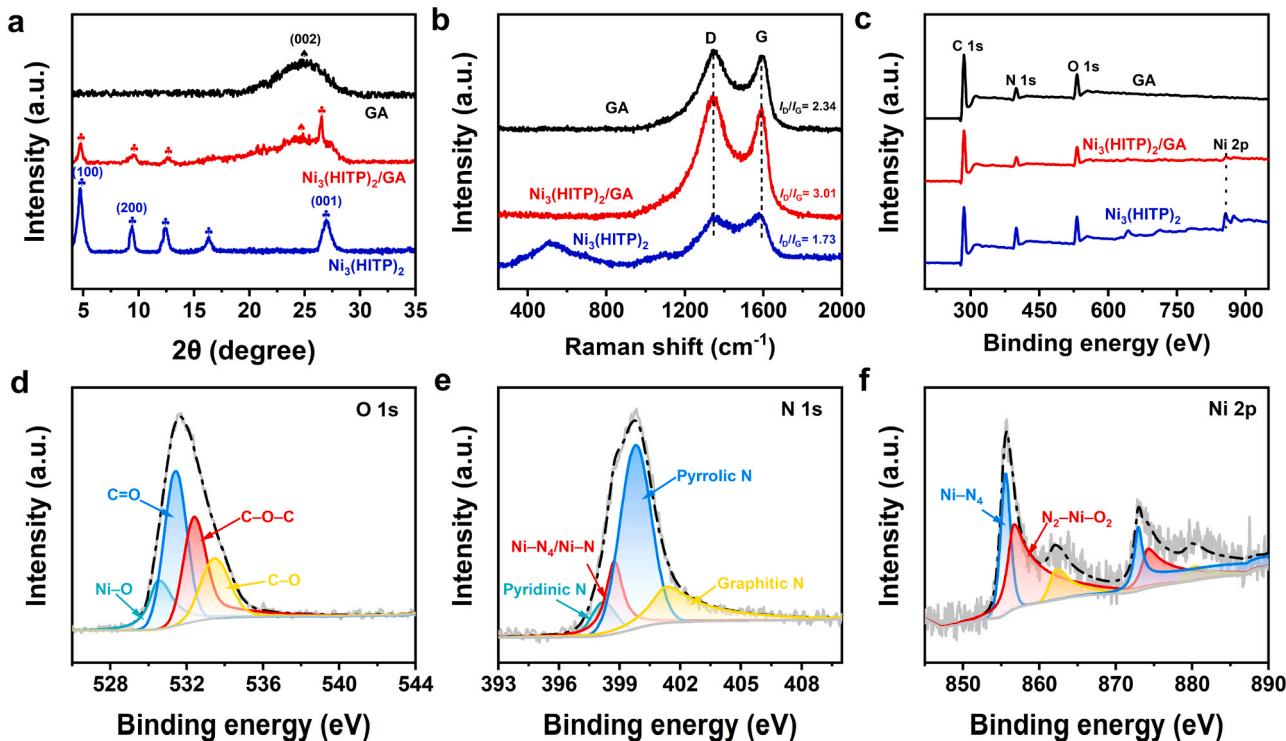


Fig. 3. (a) XRD patterns, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) X-ray photoelectron spectra of GA, Ni₃(HITP)₂, and Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA; (d) O 1 s, (e) N 1 s, and (f) Ni 2 p spectra of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA.

lamellae, thus affecting their stacking degree, leads to an increase in the defect degree of graphite, which is beneficial to the adsorption of O₂ in the subsequent electrocatalytic reduction process [33]. The results also verify the change of crystal structure, as can be concluded from the XRD results.

To further investigate the interaction between Ni₃(HITP)₂ and GA in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed (Fig. 3(c–f), S5). In Fig. 3(c), the presence of C, N, O, and Ni elements in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA indicates the formation of composites. High-resolution N 1 s mapping of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA (Fig. 3(d)) shows the appearance of a characteristic peak attributed to Ni–N_x at 398.73 eV with respect to GA (Fig. S5), while the high-resolution O 1 s mapping (Fig. 3(e)) shows a Ni–O peak (530.48 eV). Meanwhile, the high-resolution N 1 s mapping of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA also indicates that the N element in the material is mainly in the form of pyrrolic N, and the presence of large amounts of pyrrolic N significantly enhances the production of H₂O₂ during 2e⁻ ORR [34,35]. Meanwhile, the high-resolution Ni 2p mapping of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA (Fig. 3(f)) can be deconvoluted into two peaks at 855.61 and 856.83 eV, indicating the existence of two different coordination environments for Ni(II) [36]. The peak at 855.61 eV originates from the abundant Ni–N₄ valence bond in Ni₃(HITP)₂, while that at 856.83 eV comes from the Ni(II) at the interface of GO sheet and Ni₃(HITP)₂. The latter Ni(II) belongs to Ni–N₂O₂ tetradeinate coordination bond, a chemotactic bond that can reduce O₂ to H₂O₂ with high selectivity with respect to the original Ni–N₄ bond in Ni₃(HITP)₂ [37]. These results strongly suggest that the Ni(II) in Ni₃(HITP)₂ nanoparticles acts as a bridge connecting GO sheet layer and Ni₃(HITP)₂, forming a complete Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA 3D structure. In addition, the Ni 2p peak in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is reduced by about 0.1 eV compared with Ni₃(HITP)₂, but still in the range of Ni²⁺ (Fig. 3(f)), which indicates that some electrons are transferred to Ni₃(HITP)₂ owing to the electrostatic interaction between the materials, and the increase in

the charge density of Ni (II) site makes it an effective electron donor in the process of electrocatalytic oxygen reduction reaction [38], thus improving the degradation efficiency of three-dimensional electrode.

To investigate the effect of the introduction of Ni₃(HITP)₂ on the internal pore structure of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, the specific surface area as well as the pore structure of the materials were evaluated by nitrogen adsorption-desorption (Fig. 4(a)). The specific surface area of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA was 236.64 m² g⁻¹, higher than that of pure GA (44.18 m² g⁻¹), which was brought about by the introduction of Ni₃(HITP)₂ with an abundant microporous structure, as also proved by the significant increase of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA microporous surface area. Meanwhile, the composite aerogel has a hierarchical pore structure with micro-, meso-, and macropores coexisting. The presence of Ni₃(HITP)₂ can effectively inhibit the accumulation of graphene flakes and improve their pore structure [39]. The rich pore structure can provide and expose a large number of active sites, and consequently promote the 2e⁻ reduction of O₂ in electrocatalytic reduction process, thus improving the selectivity towards H₂O₂ generation [40]. In addition, the porous structure facilitates the enrichment of pollutants as well as the transfer of electrons, which is conducive to improving the degradation efficiency of phenol. The mechanical properties of the prepared graphene-based aerogel samples were also tested. Both GA and Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA are compressed to more than 90% deformation without collapse when direct compression is performed with a 100 g weight, 10,000 times or more of their self-weight (Fig. S6). When the external force is removed, both structures keep undamaged and fully resume their original heights without exhibiting observable irreversible deformation. By comparing the stress-strain curves (Fig. 4(b)), it can be seen that the maximum stress of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA (121.51 kPa) is significantly higher than that of GA (16.08 kPa), and the compressive strength of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA is increased by more than 7.5 times compared with that of pure GA. Meanwhile, Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA can be reversibly deformed at different

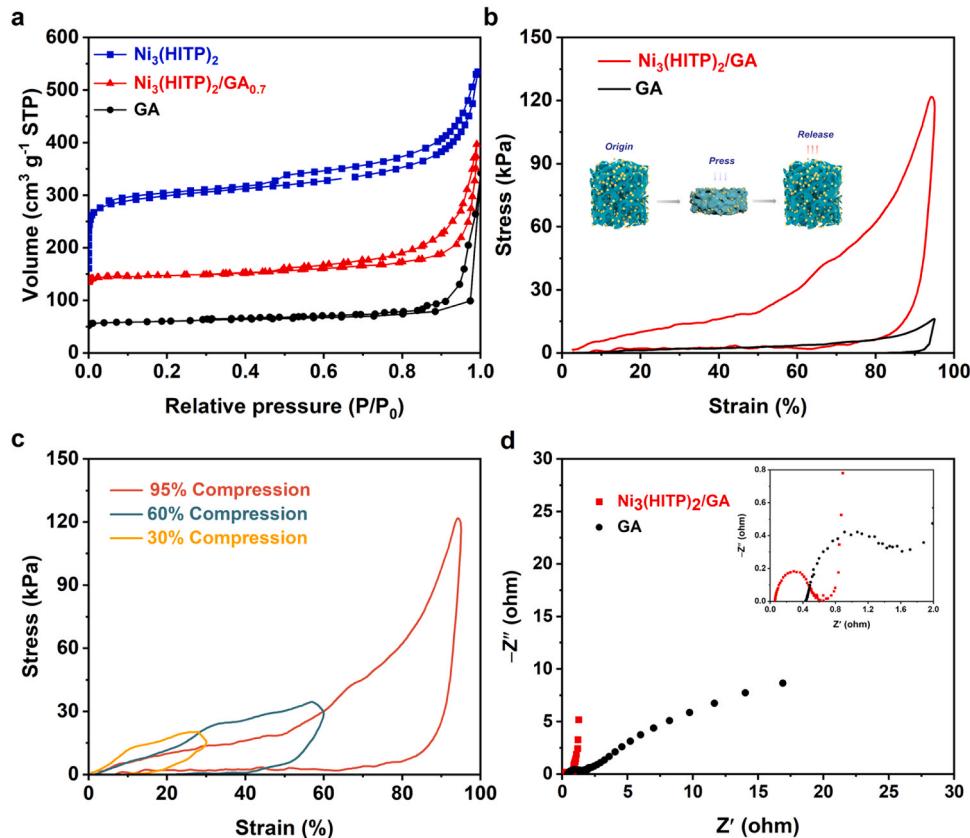


Fig. 4. (a) Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of Ni₃(HITP)₂, GA, and Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA; (b) Stress-strain curves of GA and Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA at 95% of the maximum strain; (c) Stress-strain curves of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA at 30%, 60%, and 95% of the maximum strain; and (d) Nyquist plots of GA and Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA.

strains (Fig. 4(c)), i.e., 30%, 60%, and 95%, and exhibits excellent resilience up to a maximum stress of 121.51 kPa. After 10 compression cycles (Fig. S7) at 95% strain, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ remains its height basically the same as the initial value, indicating its reproducibility and reversibility.

In order to evaluate the electrochemical performance of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composite, cyclic voltammetry, constant current charge/discharge (Fig. S8), and AC impedance (Fig. 4(d)) tests were performed. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites at different scan rates are shown in Fig. S8(a). The CV curves are basically quasi-rectangular in shape, indicating that the specific capacity of the material is mainly generated by the bilayer with excellent charge transport properties [41]. The comparative CV cycling curves of GA and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites obtained at the same scan rate of 20 mV s^{-1} are shown in Fig. S8(b). The area of the CV curve of GA is significantly smaller than that of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites, indicating the higher specific capacitance of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites than GA. The addition of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ increases the capacitance of GA under the synergistic effect of the materials. Fig. S8(c) shows the constant current charge/discharge plots of GA and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ at a current density of 0.8 A g^{-1} . The charge/discharge time of GA material is significantly shorter than that of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composite, indicating that $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composite has a larger capacity, which is consistent with the above CV curve results. The AC impedance (EIS) pattern (Fig. 4(d)) shows that the intermolecular and molecule-collector impedance of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ electrode material is smaller than that of GA, i.e., the resistance to charge transfer is smaller and the electron transfer is faster. The ions in $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites are subjected to less diffusion resistance during transport process, so their diffusion rate is higher and their electrical conductivity is better. The introduction of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ improves the electron transfer of GA under a synergistic effect, thus facilitating the electron transfer in the subsequent electrocatalytic reduction process to improve the degradation efficiency [42,43]. The cycling stability performance plots of GA and $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ (Fig. S8

(d)) also indicate that $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ composites possess excellent cycling stability, which is beneficial to the recycling of the particle electrodes.

3.2. Construction of 3D in-situ self-electrolytic system

Given the excellent properties of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, it was used as particle electrode to construct a 3D in-situ self-electrolytic system. To clarify the roles of the different electrodes in the system, the electro-catalytic degradation of phenol was conducted under different electro-catalytic systems. The 3D electrolysis device is shown in Fig. S9. As shown in Fig. 5(a), 3D- $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ achieves an astounding phenol removal of 100.0% in 15 min. However, for the 2D system, the phenol removal rate is only 23.1% after 15 min treatment. In contrast, the removal rates of phenol by 3D-ACs, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$, and GA are 28.3%, 40.4% and 46.2%, respectively. The decomposition rate constants (k_{obs}) for different systems were obtained according to the pseudo-first-order kinetic equation (Fig. 5(b)). There is a higher decomposition rate constant for phenol in all three-dimensional systems than in two-dimensional systems (0.0154 min^{-1}). Also, there is a much higher decomposition rate constant for phenol over 3D- $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ (0.3283 min^{-1}) than over 3D-ACs (0.0204 min^{-1}), 3D- $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ (0.0371 min^{-1}), and 3D-GA (0.0479 min^{-1}) systems, with a value 6.85 times that of 3D-GA system. To further demonstrate the reason for this striking effect, the in-situ hydrogen peroxide production was measured. The results show (Fig. 5(c)) that when $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ alone is used as a particle electrode, it produces the highest amount of hydrogen peroxide. This is mainly due to its special ligand structure that generates a large amount of H_2O_2 from O_2 along a 2e^- pathway [44,45]. In contrast, the 3D- $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ system produces essentially no hydrogen peroxide, mainly because the system promptly converts H_2O_2 into $\cdot\text{OH}$ through the special interface between $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ and GA.

Moreover, in order to demonstrate the advantages of the 3D electrode, the degradation efficiency of the particulate electrode material in

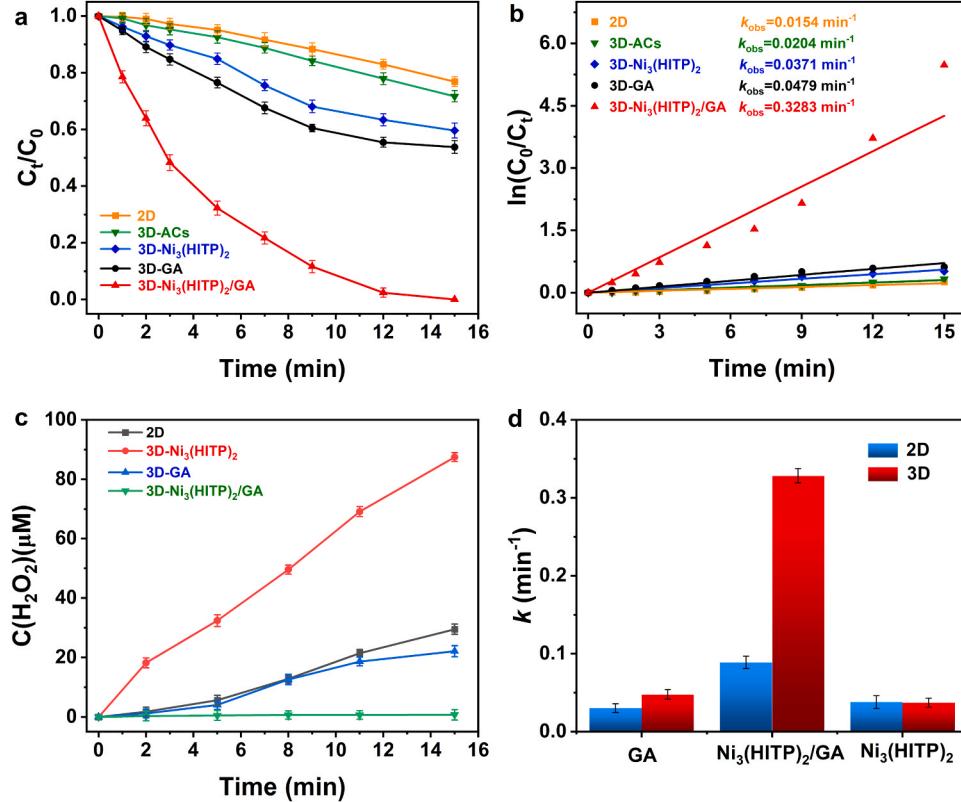


Fig. 5. (a) Degradation of phenol in different systems (2D represents the three-dimensional electrode system without any particle electrode added); (b) corresponding degradation rate constants; (c) amount of $\cdot\text{OH}$ produced in different reaction systems under the same external H_2O_2 conditions; (d) corresponding degradation rate constants. (current density, 6 mA cm^{-2} ; concentration of phenol in water, 50 ppm ; catalyst dosage, 50 mg L^{-1} ; pH 7.0; electrolyte (Na_2SO_4) concentration in water, 0.05 mol L^{-1} ; air flow rate, 0.5 L min^{-1}).

the 2D electrode system was evaluated. A large gap exists between the degradation efficiency values of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ and GA in the 2D electrode system and the 3D electrode system (Fig. 5(d)). Especially, for $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, its decomposition rate constant (0.0889 min^{-1}) is about one-third that of the 2D electrode system. The main reason for this phenomenon is the microelectrode effect of the 3D electrode and the auxiliary effect of the two main electrode plates, resulting in a more efficient redox reaction [46]. Meanwhile, the adsorption performance of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ towards phenol was assessed. An equilibrium adsorption capacity of 100.45 mg g^{-1} is reached within 200 min (Fig. S10(a), Table S3), providing a significant advantage over similar phenol adsorbents. However, the contribution of physical adsorption to phenol removal is only 5.9% within 15 min (Fig. S10(b)), which is far from the 3D degradation system established in this study. It indicates that the heterogeneous catalytic reaction of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ particle electrode in presence of O_2 induces satisfactory phenol degradation. According to the above results, for the 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system, (1) phenol

molecules are enriched on electrode plate and on the particle electrode material with rich pore structure; (2) when potential is applied, hydrogen peroxide is generated at the cathode plate and also at $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ itself and the tetradeinate $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ ligand bonding at the composite interface as $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ is polarized by electrostatic induction; (3) with the unique structure of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, the Fenton-like reaction of Ni and the 1e^- provided by microelectrode action takes place to convert H_2O_2 into $\cdot\text{OH}$ and achieve efficient degradation of pollutants.

In order to demonstrate the enhancement of H_2O_2 selectivity by the formation of $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ tetradeinate coordination bonds in $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ particle electrode, the H_2O_2 selectivity of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$, and GA was compared (Fig. S11). The results show a significant increase in H_2O_2 selectivity for $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ compared with $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ and GA under the same conditions. This is mainly due to the formation of $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ tetradeinate coordination bonds in $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$, which have been shown by researchers to contribute significantly to

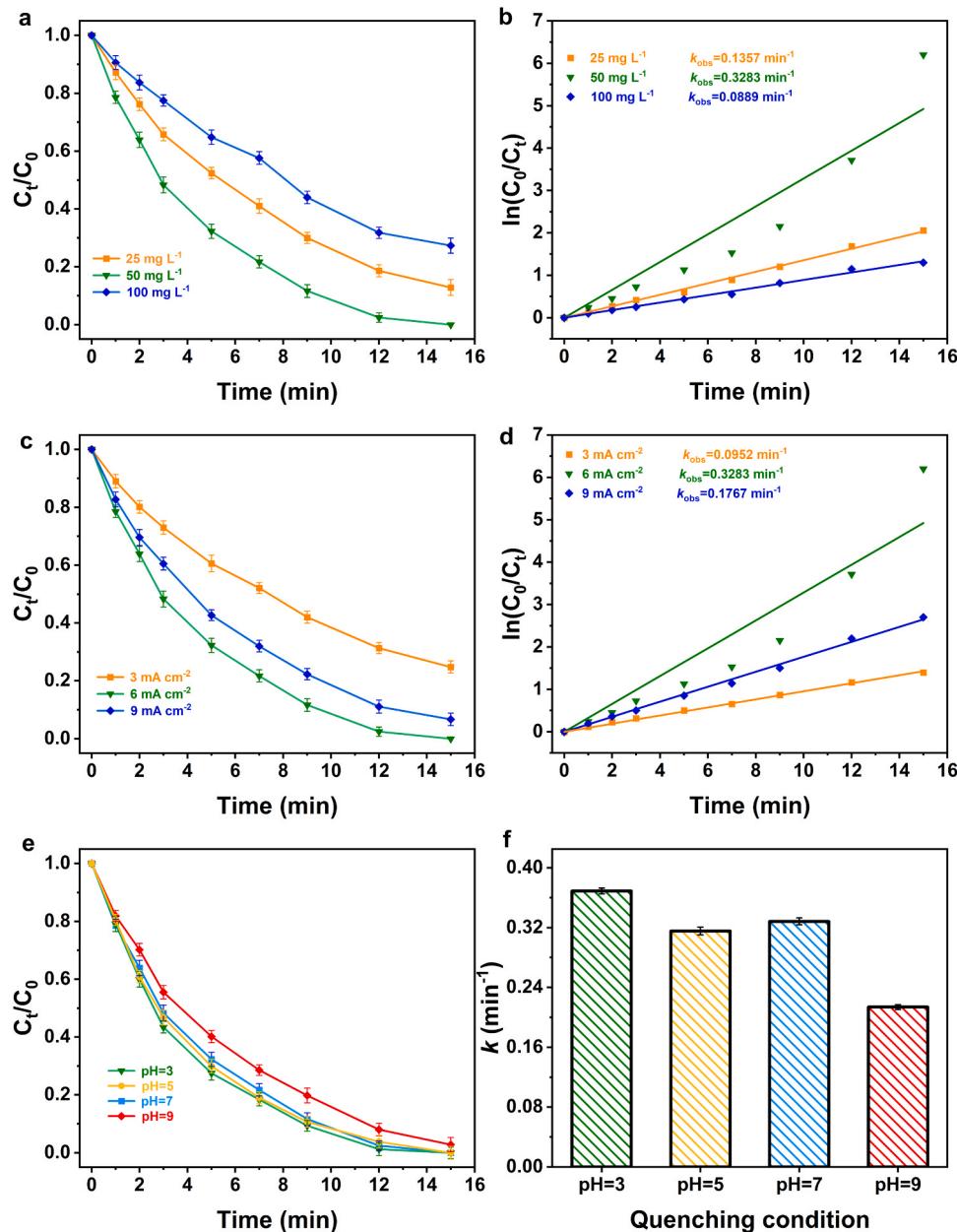


Fig. 6. (a, b) Effect of initial concentration of phenol; (c, d) effect of current density; (e, f) effect of pH (unless otherwise noted, current density, 6 mA cm^{-2} ; concentration of phenol in water, 50 ppm; catalyst dosage, 50 mg L^{-1} ; pH 7.0; electrolyte (Na_2SO_4) concentration in water, 0.05 mol L^{-1} ; air flow rate, 0.5 L min^{-1}).

the improvement of H₂O₂ selectivity [47]. For the origin of the 1-electron that converts H₂O₂ to •OH, under the same external H₂O₂ conditions, the production of •OH in three systems was measured for 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂, and 3D-GA, as shown in Fig. S12. The results show that 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA produces much more •OH than the other two systems at the same external H₂O₂. This result proves that the graphitic layer has the ability to produce 1-electrons only in the presence of Ni₃(HITP)₂. Owing to the graphite-like structure of Ni₃(HITP)₂, it can produce π-π charge off-domain effects with the graphene lamellae [27]. When Ni₃(HITP)₂ is encapsulated in the graphitic layer, the activated outgoing off-domain electrons are confined in such a narrow heterogeneous space, and under the action of electric field, H₂O₂ is converted into •OH in time.

3.2.1. Optimization of process parameters

The optimal conditions for the degradation of phenol in the 3D electrode system, such as the initial concentration of phenol, current density, and pH, were systematically explored to obtain the best organic pollutant removal. As shown in Fig. 6(a) and (b), as phenol concentration changes from 25 to 100 mg L⁻¹, the degradation efficiency of phenol increases first and then decreases. At low concentrations, the increase in pollutant concentration facilitates its diffusion to the electrode plate as well as the surface of the particle electrode, thus accelerating surface electrocatalytic reduction reaction [48]. However, when the concentration of phenol is too large, the ability of the system to electrolyze phenol cannot match the diffusion rate of phenol, resulting in a decrease in the degradation rate. Moreover, the higher the concentration of phenol, the more •OH is required for its full degradation. When the phenol concentration is too large, a large number of phenol molecules diffuse into the pore structure of the material, thus limiting the efficiency of •OH generation (Fig. S13(a)), and consequently, reducing the degradation efficiency of the system. Therefore, the optimal initial concentration of phenol is 50 mg L⁻¹.

The redox reactions occurring on the electrode surface and the polarization of the particle electrodes are driven by applied potential and current. Therefore, the magnitude of current seriously affects the degradation rate (Fig. 6(c) and (d)). With increasing current density, the degradation efficiency of phenol in the system increases first and then decreases. The decomposition rate constant also increases from 0.0952 min⁻¹ to 0.3283 min⁻¹ and then decreases to 0.1767 min⁻¹. Owing to increased current density, the driving force of the whole system becomes greater, particle electrodes are more likely to repolarize and produce microelectrolytic cells, and its redox effect is enhanced [49]. When the current density continues to increase, side reactions such as cathodic evolution of hydrogen and anodic evolution of oxygen occur [50], lowering the current efficiency and the •OH content in the system (Fig. S13(b)), thus affecting the electrocatalytic degradation process. Therefore, 6.0 mA cm⁻² was chosen as the optimum current density. Meanwhile, as shown in Fig. S14, the COD value in the system decreases from the initial 178.34 mg L⁻¹ to 43.38 mg L⁻¹ after 15 min of reaction. According to energy consumption calculations, the system degrades phenol in 15 min with 0.53 kWh m⁻³ order⁻¹, corresponding to a specific energy consumption of 8.434 kWh kg⁻¹ COD_{phenol}⁻¹. The system exhibits a surprising phenol degradation at a low energy consumption, indicating that the electrocatalytic process is an energy-efficient technology for the deep treatment of organic pollutants.

It is known that the initial pH of solution can seriously affect the electrocatalytic degradation of phenol, and most of the electrocatalytic degradation systems are Fenton and Fenton-like systems. These systems are dependent on acidic environment owing to the transformation of metal valence states, leading to their narrow application scope [51]. However, in this study, the degradation of phenol was tested at pH= 3, 5, 7, and 9. As shown in Fig. 6(e) and (f), the degradation rate of phenol exceeds 97% in 15 min at all pH values, and the corresponding decomposition rate constant exceeds 0.2 min⁻¹. Obviously, the system is extremely adaptable to both acidic and alkaline environments and

applicable to the treatment of coking wastewater with complex composition. This surprising effect is also due to the unique interface structure of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, which can provide 1e⁻ for the conversion of H₂O₂ to •OH, thus reducing the dependence on acidic environment. Therefore, the pH of phenol solution was set at 7 as a starting point.

3.2.2. Cyclic stability of the system

The reusability of the 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system for Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA was investigated by continuous phenol degradation experiments. After the completion of each reaction, squeezing was conducted, followed by simple washing and drying through water and ethanol. As shown in Fig. 7(a), the removal rate of phenol could still reach 97.19% within 15 min after five consecutive degradation experiments, indicating the good reusability of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA in the 3D in-situ self-electrolysis process for the degradation of organic pollutants. The amount of •OH produced during the five cycles does not change significantly (Fig. 7(b)), and the amount of •OH produced in the fifth cycle only differences from the first by 0.479 μM. In addition, as observed from the average voltage change of the system during the five cycles (Fig. 7(b)), the internal voltage remains basically unchanged, which ensures the system to continuously work with low energy consumption and high efficiency. In addition, as shown in Fig. 7(c), the XRD patterns of the material after five cycles show that the characteristic peaks of Ni₃(HITP)₂ are still present. Meanwhile, for the post-reaction Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA, because of the rearrangement of crystalline structure, some new phases appear [52], while some peaks disappear, which may be due to falling off of the Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles attached to the surface of graphene oxide flakes in the continuous cycling experiments. This phenomenon also indicates that the Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles encapsulated by graphene oxide and coordinated with graphene oxide are stably bound, thus ensuring the good cycling performance of the material. This conclusion is also confirmed by the XPS maps of the material after cycling experiments, as seen in Fig. 7(d), where the content of elemental Ni slightly decreases after the cycling experiments. The high-resolution N 1 s and O 1 s plots of the material after cycling experiments show that Ni-N_x and Ni-O peaks are still present, which is consistent with the above XRD results. The Ni (II) (Ni-N₂O₂)/Ni (II) (Ni-N₄) ratio in the material is significantly elevated after the cyclic reaction (Fig. S15, Table S4). We presume that it is the large retention of Ni-N₂O₂ that allows the material to maintain its excellent degradation performance after a large structural damage. These results also suggest that the striking degradation effect of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA may be produced by the combination of the Ni₃(HITP)₂ particles encapsulated inside the graphene oxide and the special four-dentate coordination bonds formed by the graphene oxide and Ni₃(HITP)₂.

3.2.3. Degradation mechanism and pathway of phenol in the 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system

To investigate the effect of active radical species on the phenol removal efficiency of the Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA-based 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system, the reactive radicals generated during the reaction were identified by radical quenching experiments. As shown in Fig. 8(a) and (b), when methanol (the radical scavenger of SO₄^{•-}) is added to the reactant mixture, the phenol degradation rate of the system as well as the decomposition rate constant do not change significantly, indicating that SO₄^{•-} is not the reactive species of the system [53]. However, when TBA (a radical scavenger of •OH) is added to the reactants, the phenol degradation efficiency is decreased significantly and the reaction is nearly quenched, indicating the dominant role by the reactive species •OH in the degradation of phenol in the system [54]. Meanwhile, the reaction is also inhibited to some extent after the addition of chloroform (a radical scavenger of O₂^{•-}), indicating the presence of O₂^{•-} active species in the system [55]. Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) test shows the distinct signals of DMPO-•OH and DMPO-O₂^{•-} complexes in the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system (Fig. 8(c), Fig. S16). This result indicates that a large number of •OH and O₂^{•-} active species are present in the

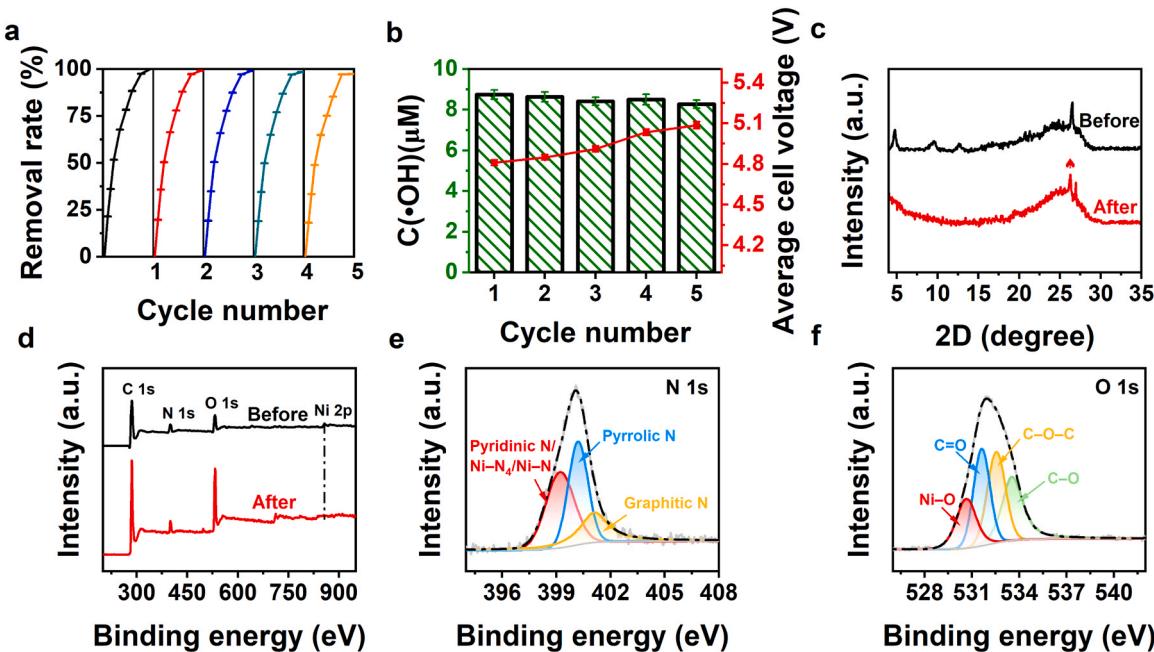


Fig. 7. (a) Phenol degradation rate in five-cycle experiment; (b) amount of $\bullet\text{OH}$ production and the change of the average voltage of the system during five cycles of experiment; (c) XRD patterns, (d) X-ray photoelectron spectra, (e) N 1 s, and (f) O 1 s spectra of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ after five-cycle experiment (current density, 6 mA cm^{-2} ; concentration of phenol in water, 50 ppm; catalyst dosage, 50 mg L^{-1} ; pH 7.0; electrolyte (Na_2SO_4) concentration in water, 0.05 mol L^{-1} ; air flow rate, 0.5 L min^{-1}).

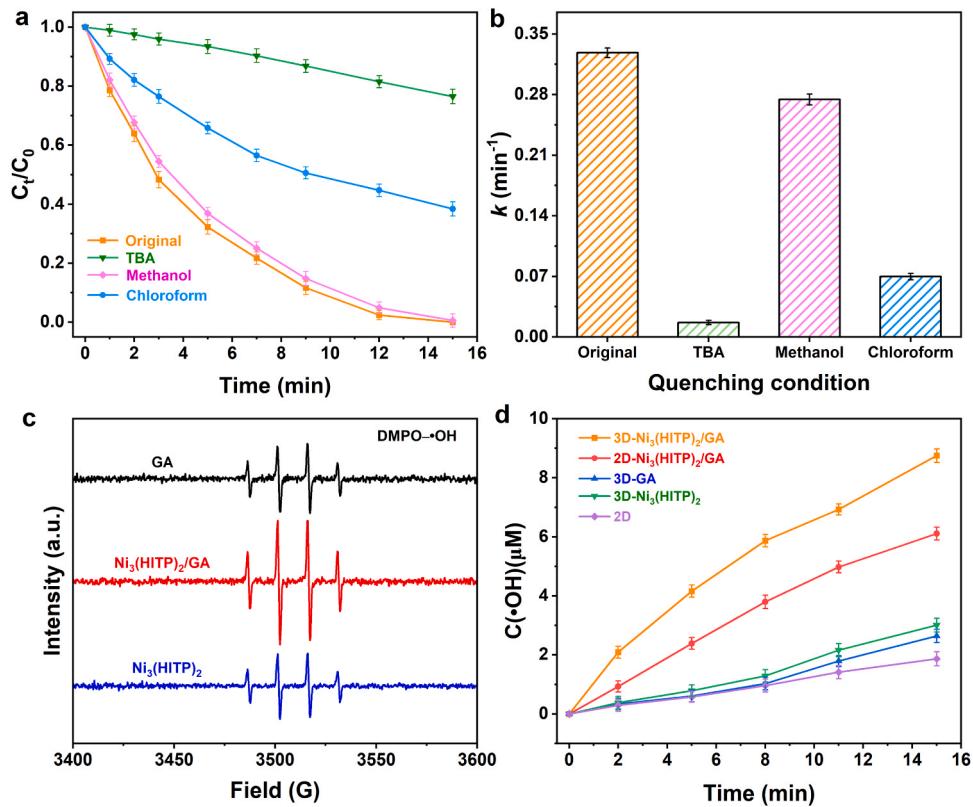


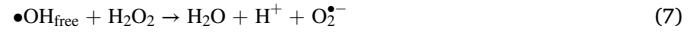
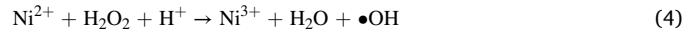
Fig. 8. (a) Comparison of the degradation effect of different quenching conditions; (b) corresponding comparison of the reaction rates; (c) EPR spectra of $\bullet\text{OH}$ captured by DMPO (d) amount of $\bullet\text{OH}$ produced in different reaction systems (current density, 6 mA cm^{-2} ; concentration of phenol in water, 50 ppm; catalyst dosage, 50 mg L^{-1} ; pH 7.0; electrolyte (Na_2SO_4) concentration in water, 0.05 mol L^{-1} ; air flow rate, 0.5 L min^{-1} ; TBA, 0.5 M; Methanol, 0.5 M; Chloroform, 0.5 M).

3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA degradation system. According to these findings, it can be concluded that in the 3D electrode system, phenol removal is dominated by •OH and O₂[•].

In Fig. 8(d), 7-hydroxycoumarin was measured in response to a reaction between •OH and coumarin to see whether the concentration of •OH in the reaction changed with increasing reaction time. 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system produces a large amount of •OH rapidly within 15 min with the maximum concentration of 8.75 μM. Meanwhile, 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂, 3D-GA, and 2D systems also produce •OH within 15 min of the catalytic reaction, but at much lower concentrations than 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system. As shown in Fig. 8(c), though DMPO-•OH signals were also detected in the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂ and 3D-GA system, significantly stronger DMPO-•OH signals were detected in the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system. The experimental results are consistent with the phenol degradation in these reaction systems, which proves that the electrocatalytic degradation process is dependent upon •OH, and the main reason for the efficient and deep phenol degradation ability of the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system is the efficient generation of •OH. It is noteworthy that though 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂ produces a higher concentration of •OH in 15 min compared with 3D-GA, its degradation is not as effective. 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂ produces a higher concentration of •OH probably because of its strong hydrogen peroxide production ability, and a large amount of hydrogen peroxide produces relatively more •OH under its own moderate Fenton-like effect. However, when GA is used as a 3D material with rich pore structure, the abundant pores in its structure, the dangling -COOH on the graphene oxide lamellae, and the internal defects provide strong motivation for the adsorption of O₂ as well as the transport of electrons [56]. Thus, its easy generation of O₂[•] through O₂-binding electrons is rationalizable. As shown in Fig. S17(a), the phenol degradation reaction is also inhibited to some extent in the 3D-GA system after the addition of chloroform (a radical scavenger for O₂[•]), and therefore O₂[•] active specie is present in this system. In contrast, the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂ system shows almost no change in the degradation of phenol after the addition of the same quenching agent (Fig. S17(b)). Meanwhile, EPR test shows that the DMPO-O₂[•] signal was only present in the 3D-GA system, and it was not detected in the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂ system (Fig. S16). The results also indicate that O₂[•] active specie in the 3D electrode system is mainly produced by GA, so that the surprising effect exhibited by the 3D-Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA system is produced by the interaction of each part of the system, in which each component is indispensable.

According to the experimental results and discussion mentioned

above, the mechanism of the 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system based on Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA for the removal of phenol from coking wastewater is proposed. As shown in Fig. 9, oxygen from the air enters the solution and diffuses to the stainless steel cathode as well as to the surface of the particle electrode to generate H₂O₂ through the 2e⁻ ORR path (Eq. (2)). The unique ligand structure of Ni₃(HITP)₂ and the tetradeinate Ni-N₂O₂ coordination bond at the interface of the composite material exist inside Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA as a particle electrode, and the presence of these structures enables the highly selective in-situ generation of large amounts of H₂O₂ in the material itself. At the same time, the abundant oxygen-containing functional groups on Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA are conducive to the adsorption of O₂ during the reaction process, and the large number of pore structures is conducive to the improvement of the electron transfer efficiency [57,58]. Therefore, the abundant oxygen-containing functional groups and a large number of pore structures in Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA enhance the oxidation for water, improve the selectivity of 2e⁻ reduction for O₂, and reduce the self-decomposition rate of H₂O₂, thus increasing H₂O₂ yield [59]. In addition, the defects on the graphene oxide sheet layer also facilitate the adsorption of O₂ by the system. After H₂O₂ production, the reaction system converts H₂O₂ to •OH synergistically by microelectrode action, activated graphene electrocatalytic activity, and Fenton-like effect of Ni (Eqs. (3–5)). In addition, part of the O₂ adsorbed on the surface of the particle electrode is converted to O₂[•] after combining the e⁻ provided by the microelectrode (Eq. (6)), and part of free •OH interacts with H₂O₂ to form O₂[•] (Eq. (7)). Under the joint attack of •OH and O₂[•], the phenol molecules adsorbed on the surface of Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA are mineralized into small molecules such as CO₂ and H₂O.



The degradation of phenol in this system is superior in terms of degradation rate and efficiency over numerous 3D-electrode degradation systems in the literature so far (Table S5). The surprising results of this study are all attributed to the establishment of a 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system, which is based on a 3D electrode with a material as a particle electrode. This particle electrode has the ability to generate H₂O₂ using its internal Ni₃(HITP)₂ and the Ni-N₂O₂ tetradeinate coordination bond formed at the internal interface of the material, and to convert H₂O₂ to •OH in situ through its own graphite shell structure.

The degradation intermediates at different times were detected by GC-MS as shown in Fig. S18. From GC-MS, benzoquinone, hydroquinone, catechol, and maleic anhydride appeared during the degradation process [60]. The sample needs to be dehydrated for GC-MS testing, and maleic acid dehydrates to form maleic anhydride. Thus, we proposed a plausible degradation pathway for phenol in the system (Fig. S19). Owing to the electron-withdrawing effect of phenol, hydroquinone and catechol are formed at first in the presence of •OH [61]. And with the continued attack of •OH, hydroquinone and catechol are converted to p-benzoquinone. Meanwhile, some p-benzoquinone is also formed owing to the oxidation of phenol when it is attacked by O₂[•]. Then, with the continued attack of free radicals, the ring-opening of p-benzoquinone is obtained to form carboxylic acids, which are eventually converted to CO₂ and H₂O [50].

4. Conclusion

In summary, a Ni₃(HITP)₂/graphene-based composite aerogel

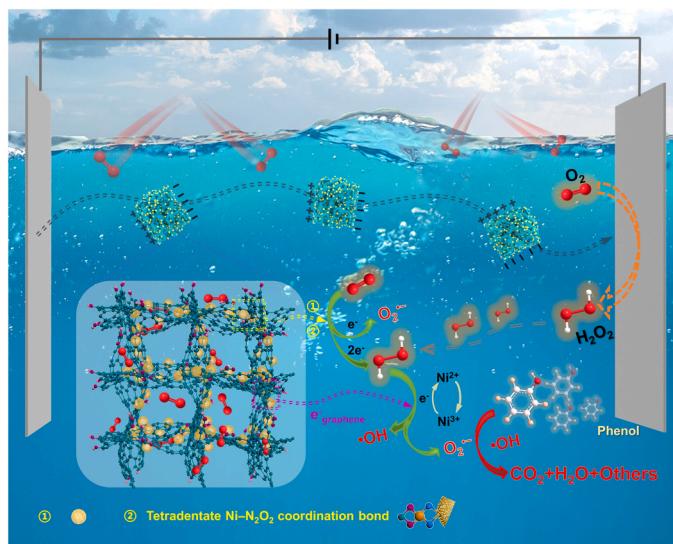


Fig. 9. Mechanism of phenol removal from coking wastewater by a Ni₃(HITP)₂/GA-based 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system.

particle electrode with high electrical conductivity and high catalytic activity was developed by self-assembly technology, and a 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system with efficient phenol degradation capability was established with this particle electrode. In this system, the $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ in $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ and the tetradeятate $\text{Ni}-\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ coordination bond formed at the interface of the composite material generate H_2O_2 with high selectivity and in-situ through the 2e^- pathway, and the graphene layer converts H_2O_2 into $\bullet\text{OH}$ by using the 1e^- transfer of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ excitation and the microelectrode action of the particle electrode. At the same time, the system uses $\bullet\text{OH}$ (graphene layers' 1e^- action) and O_2^\bullet action (enriched O_2) together to significantly reduce the dependence on acidic environment and broaden its utilization range. After 5 cycles of degradation, the system maintained 97.19% of its initial degradation rate with good durability. The 3D in-situ self-electrolysis system based on $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2/\text{GA}$ particle electrodes has a surprisingly efficient degradation of phenol and is expected to achieve practical application in coking wastewater. This work provides a new strategy for the efficient use of particle electrodes in 3D electrodes and expands the application of 3D electrodes in the field of deep treatment of organic matter in coking wastewater.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Shaojun Gao: Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing-Original draft preparation, Visualization. **Weifeng Liu:** Conceptualization, Validation, Investigation, Resources, Writing-Reviewing and Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Meiling Wang:** Resources, Supervision. **Zongbin Zhao:** Conceptualization, Writing-Reviewing. **Xuguang Liu:** Conceptualization, Validation, Investigation, Resources, Writing-Reviewing and Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123276](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123276).

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